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## CONTENTS

Not of the Letter, But of the Spirit Olis G. Jamison	Editorial
The Problem Method in Freshman Social Science at Colgate University Robert E. Elder	Page 122
Curriculum Improvement for Pre-Service Preparation of Elementary Teachers John M. Miller and Roben J. Maaske	Page 124
Democracy in Action on a Teacher's College Campus Dennis Trueblood	Page 126
A Study of the Vocational and Professional Choices of Freshmen at Indiana State Charles Hardaway	Page 128
A Study of Service Enterprises Ralph Watson	Page 129
Abstracts of Unpublished Master's Theses	Page 140

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# Not of the Letter, But of the Spirit . . .

With two editorials in recent numbers of this Journal devoted to the subject of method, and, in this number, Mr. Elder's account of work at Colgate, we are reminded again of the unceasing quest in education for a better methodology. Any goals—the ideals and purposes we hope to attain—definitely call for means, for methods, if those goals are to be realized. Industry, medicine and government have recognized the importance of devising and using new methods, and one of the most interesting chapters in the history of education, too, tells of the search for better ways of realizing objectives. Those who are professionally engaged in searching for ways to improve the teaching-learning activity have oft-times been criticized by their academically trained brothers because it has been said, and rightly so in some instances, that the so-called professionally-minded were becoming worshippers of method and minimizing the importance of subject-matter. But this is not a fault of method itself. The great leaders in the field of methodology such as Herbart, the MacMurrays, Bagley, Judd and Dewey had a broader vision

than this. They realized not only the central importance of the individual but also the necessity for subject-matter; they saw too, however, that the inept teacher could make the individual's activi-

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ty in relation to subject-matter time-wasting and fruitless. Because part of that ineptness could lie in awkward or ineffectual methods they stressed the importance of methodology.

Several year ago the project method was introduced as a way of making learning more meaningful. It came in about the time Dewey began to impress upon the minds of teachers the significance of his dictum, "We learn by doing," and gave promise of combining the best about learning as a means of reaching the goals of education. Subject-matter could be presented to challenge the learner; purpose, or interest, could be more

certainly aroused; the principle of individual differences was recognized. So widely heralded was this method that on the basic principle implied we even saw school systems reorganized. The mention of the "Pueblo Plan," the "Dalton Plan," the "Winnetka Plan," furnishes evidence of this. But great as its influence was, it, like all methods, at times became so formalized that the spirit was lost. This is the pitfall of method. It is only when we have a harmony of subject-matter, method, and purpose, each one flexibly united with the others, that education at its best can be achieved.

Mr. Elder's article shows how a major division of a great university recognizes this truth. Surely no one could say they are sacrificing subject-matter for method. It is obvious that here method is the tool and not the end. Here we have a testimonial to the fact that good education demands not only subject-matter, not only objectives, but also method intelligently united with the other two.

OLIS G. JAMISON

# The Problem Method in Freshman Social Science at Colgate University

Robert E. Elder

*Assistant Professor of Political Science,  
Colgate University*

Educators observing the international and domestic problems of the post-war period may do well to consider what can be done to prepare more adequately



both children and adults in their communities for life in what has become a rather complex and confusing world. The search made for "normalcy" after the last war

would be futile today. It is now apparent that time will continue to bring new problems, that values must be ceaselessly subjected to change. As a result, some social lag becomes inevitable, but it is the great task and privilege of the teacher of social science to aid in minimizing this lag, and in maximizing the adaptation of his fellow men to changing social situations.

The task is made no easier by the fact that mankind, as a whole, enjoys a certain amount of routine, is rather thoroughly occupied with the necessity of earning a living, and is more interested in problems of a personal nature than in those which are less immediate. Also contributing to human inertia is the natural tendency of our leaders, social, economic, and political, to be satisfied with a status quo which recognizes their talents and places the

elements of power in their deserving hands. Individuals or groups in a privileged position rarely welcome social change for fear that it will bring a shift in the power structure of the community. A final complicating factor, which in part accounts for our slow adaptation to changing conditions, is the inability of even many college-trained individuals to approach social, economic, and political problems analytically, to see the varied implications of a several-sided question, to weigh and balance the good and the bad, to assess in terms of shades of gray rather than black and white.

Without entering too deeply into any battle over the relative merits of one methodology of teaching social science over another, and aware that method is not necessarily the major factor in successful or unsuccessful teaching, it would seem logical to raise the question at least whether some of the methods employed to teach social science in the past or some of the social science courses taught in the past actually were of a type likely to further social adaptation. This presupposes, of course, that social adaptation is desirable and that such a process is closely related to the teaching goals of social science.

My own memory is particularly critical of those courses, seemingly not uncommon at one time in social science on the college level, which led to the almost classical procedure of getting what the

professor had in his notebook faithfully transcribed into my own and then cramming the night before the examination so that the words of wisdom could be regurgitated without ever having been digested. No more favorably remembered are those courses in which as a student I found it necessary to memorize textual facts and recite them without ever producing any thoughts or relating the pages of the book to surrounding community life.

My own hands have not remained entirely clean with regard to either of the practices just recalled with disfavor, but in spite of my being somewhat in the position of a man in a glass house, or perhaps because of it, there seems to me to exist a real need to wrestle with the devils to which such practices give birth. The need to testify against the lecture method and against the recitation of facts seems all the more compelling as a result of the appearance of the abstract of an unpublished masters thesis in the November 1947 issue of the *Teachers College Journal* which summarizes the results of an experiment to determine whether the lecture method or the textbook-and-recitation method was better for teaching social studies in high school and which reported student preference for the lecture method.

There is no denying that the lecture method can be very stimulating to the teacher, especially so because each of us to himself sounds particularly delightful and completely correct, but whether that stimulation carries over to the minds of our students, helps make them critical of what we say, helps them learn to express their own ideas orally, or, for that matter, helps them have ideas of their own may be another thing entirely. Certainly most students like the lecture method. Ideas are packaged neatly and the student's thinking is done for him. There is

no easier way of fulfilling the requirements for a diploma or a degree. But, let us ask ourselves, what kind of citizens will most of the products of such a methodology become? Thoughtful? Critical? Analytical? While no categorical answers are possible, the implications are clear.

The text-and-recitation method of teaching can be just as sterile on the high school and college level as the lecture method, particularly if recitation is limited to factual reporting of matter appearing in the text. Fortunately, it need not be. Unfortunately, because of the formal presentation of knowledge made by most texts it is difficult for both the teacher and student to move from the facts treated in the text to conditions in their own community, in their own country, in the world in which they live. Whether the textbook causes the ivory tower or the ivory tower the textbook is as much a problem as that posed by the chicken and the egg.

The freshman Social Science Survey course at Colgate University was largely a textbook-and-recitation course until the 1947-48 school year. It was probably little better but certainly no worse than hundreds of other similar courses offered to college freshmen throughout the United States. In its favor was the fact that the text, which was rather widely used by other colleges and universities, had been prepared on the Colgate campus to meet the particular needs of the Social Survey. Detracting from the value of the course, however, was the fact that the text had not been brought up-to-date during the war and by the 1946-47 school year was in need of considerable revision.

It is not difficult for me to recall that in classroom discussion it was my usual practice to use the text as a point of departure for the discussion of problems to which the text called attention, that probably the least useful dis-

cussions were those which fell back to the level of checking textual facts. Clarification of textual material there sometimes must be, checking of student study habits there sometimes must be, but in neither of these activities does it seem to me that the fundamental purpose of social science teaching is to be found. This does not imply a disbelief in the importance of facts. Quite to the contrary, it is my firm belief that ideas not derived from fact are likely to be of little value, but there is sincere doubt in my mind that major emphasis in the social science classroom, particularly on the college level, should be placed on learning facts.

The old Social Science Survey was a one semester course, meeting three times per week, based largely on the text. Although hardly inspired in nature it took students rapidly over the fields of sociology, economics, education, and political science and undoubtedly left them splitting at the seams with facts and ideas, probably more of the former than of the latter. The chief criticism of the Social Science Survey was that most often levelled at freshman survey courses. It was said to be too superficial and material was thought to be covered too rapidly. It was not a "bad" course, and many students not only enjoyed it but derived real value from it. Why, then, was it scuttled?

If by chance you have come in contact with a member of the post-war teaching staff at Colgate University you have almost certainly heard him talking about the "problem" method. It is a matter of fact that he sometimes dreams about it, and if his lips are moving with no audible sound he is undoubtedly mumbling about it. One reason for this preoccupation with the problem method is the stress which has been placed upon it by the faculty-administration post-war curriculum commit-

tee<sup>1</sup> which has sought to move the university out of the proverbial ivory tower and into the world. Another is the fact that the problem method, although a maiden of some virtue, may be all things to all men. Almost every member of the staff, at one time or another, has had his own concept of what the problem method is or should be, and, college professors being what they are, most of them still believe in their own definitions, although as members of the staffs of sectional courses they may be now using a more official version.

As a matter of fact, there has been no imposition of the problem method upon any department in the university. Experimentation so far has been initiated in a relatively small number of courses. No single version of the problem method has been approved as the official pattern for the entire university. Rather, each department or sectional course has been free to adopt its own experimental plans to meet its own needs, subject in part to the previous inclinations or experiences of department heads or course chairmen but largely through processes of democratic discussion.

Probably the only thing held in common by all of the new problem method courses at Colgate University is the fact that every one of them seeks increased student participation and responsibility either within or outside the classroom. The forcing of increased responsibility upon the student has been achieved in various ways, but it has been done primarily by any one or all of three methods. First, students are presented with a problem in class and sent to find the answer for

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<sup>1</sup>See Sidney J. French, "Post-War Education at Colgate University," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, April 1946

(Continued on page 136)

# Curriculum Improvement for Pre-Service Preparation of Elementary Teachers

John M. Miller

*Director of Teacher Education*

Roben J. Maaske

*President, Eastern Oregon College, LaGrande, Oregon*

An effective educational program for prospective teachers requires that they be aware of the problems which they will encounter in the communities in which they will serve. In order that such information and techniques may be a part of the teacher program, it is definitely necessary that the faculty of an institution be cognizant of the situation to be found in the communities of the area served by the institution.

A first step in the improvement of an institution's teacher-education curriculum might well be a carefully-planned survey of the chief socio-economic needs existing in the communities of the area served by the institution. When these results have been ascertained, a series of conferences with the college faculty should be planned to acquaint them with the problems which will be encountered by young teachers out on the job. A study of the curriculum to know the particular courses that would best lend themselves to instruction relating to community needs and problems might well consume a number of meetings of the entire faculty. Faculty committees and individual faculty members should then give necessary attention to the specific course objectives and to the revised and revitalized content of the courses.

Eastern Oregon College followed somewhat this plan by first determining the scope of the area served by the institutions, then

making a careful survey of the socio-economic needs of that area, and following up with meetings of the faculty and faculty committees.

## *Method of Gathering Data.*

The data were gathered by the case interview and the questionnaire method. Individuals were selected for case interviews in each county on the basis of one or more of the following criteria: (1) presumed knowledge of socio-economic conditions within the county by reason of long-time service in a county-wide position; (2) educational leadership and experience on a county-wide basis, assuming reasonably penetrating knowledge of community and county conditions; and (3) occupying positions of community or rural leadership including positions in public schools.

Among those selected on the county level were county judges, county school superintendents, county welfare workers, county home demonstration agents, and county agricultural agents. On the community level they were selected from among persons such as editors, physicians, labor leaders, ministers, farmers, business men, and Parent-Teacher Association officers.

The study proceeded on the assumption that the carefully refined cross section of opinion of presumably informed leaders of counties and communities would provide a reasonably valid appraisal of existing conditions and

problems. A total of 49 case interviews was conducted in the seven counties, approximately evenly divided between county leaders and community leaders.

In order to obtain an additional sampling of opinion dealing with the same general questions as contained on the case interview schedule, a questionnaire was sent to a number of individuals within their communities. A questionnaire was used also with a selected group of experienced teachers from these various counties who were in attendance at the summer session of the College. A total of 111 questionnaires were returned from the counties. Factual data were also collected from each county school superintendent on the number and location of churches, number of doctors, youth recreation centers in the area, and similar information.

## *Socio-Economic Needs of the Area.*

The socio-economic needs or problems brought out in the study will be discussed in the order of combined frequency of mention on both the case interviews and the questionnaire returns.

"Lack of recreational facilities for young people" led the list by being mentioned in 82 per cent of the returns. The replies indicated that the "movie" show, public dance hall, and other commercial types of entertainment and recreation were about all most communities afforded. It was suggested that there was need for recreational buildings, swimming pools, tennis courts, volley ball courts, playgrounds, evening library facilities, additional athletic opportunities, open longer hours and a well-chosen and capable supervisor.

Each person mentioning this as a prior need emphasized the acuteness of the problem. It was noted that this problem was common over the entire area regardless of the size of the community. Sixty per cent of the respondents

naming this need said that it was very important that the recreational facilities when available be well supervised.

A need "for more and better housing" was mentioned by 40 per cent of those interviewed and replying to the questionnaire. This condition is more acute now than at any time, but will likely be relieved to some degree with the completion of houses now under construction and the repairs and improvement of houses already occupied. Nevertheless, suitable housing in the communities of this area will continue to be a problem for a number of years to come because of high costs and the lag during the last decade and a half. Needs for electricity and other modern home conveniences was indicated also, especially in rural area. It was emphasized that the need was acute for power, as well as lights, to aid in the improvement of the economic conditions in much of the extreme rural areas of these counties.

A need "for higher moral and religious ideals" was indicated by 21 per cent of those interviewed. They expressed concern and alarm at the sharply increasing use of liquor, the attendance of teen-age students at poorly-conducted public dances, and the prevailing spirit of general irreverence. The annual reports of the Oregon State Liquor Control Commission show an increase of 112.1 per cent from 1941-2 to 1945-6 in the number of cases of liquor sold annually in the state. The figures are not available for the counties studied, but it can be assumed that the proportionate increase is fairly accurate for the eastern Oregon area. The general influence of such an increase in consumption of liquor was apparently noted as unfavorable by observers of conduct in the various communities.

Due to sharp price increases the total in dollars spent for liquor may provide an exaggerated pic-

ture. Nevertheless, the total figures are startling. For the fiscal year ending in 1942 in Oregon a total of \$13,974,101.06 was expended for liquor. For the fiscal year ending in 1946 this figure for the state had reached the total \$41,268,870.53, or an increase in money expended for liquor in the state of approximately 315 per cent in a four-year period. The opinion seemed somewhat general that numbers of people are failing in control of themselves and their children with a resulting crumbling of moral standards.

In the special survey of factual data mentioned earlier, each of the county school superintendents reported from one to seventeen churches in each community of 200 or more population. It was also reported that the influence of the churches was felt only by a relatively limited number of people in each community. The feeling of county school superintendents seemed to be that the task of leadership in raising the level of moral and religious ideals could be aided by the schools but that it was to great a problem for them to solve alone.

The need "for civic organization and community cooperation" was mentioned by 16 per cent of those replying. These replies came largely from other than the larger population centers. It is assumed that in the larger centers such organization and community cooperation was handled by the Chamber of Commerce or other similar organizations. The consensus of those mentioned this item was that a definite need existed for a survey and planning body to select the urgent problems of the community, and through their leadership to bring about cooperation action on these matters.

A need "for improvement of health conditions" was stressed by 10 per cent of the respondents. Mention was made of the lack of knowledge on such matters as home and community sanitation,

good diet practice and control of epidemics. Special emphasis was placed on the existing lack of doctors, except in the few larger centers in each county.

The supplementary survey which gave information on the actual distribution of doctors in the area shows Baker County with 14 doctors and a population of 18,297; Grant, 3 doctors, population 6,380; Malheur, 8 doctors, population 19,767; Morrow, 3 doctors, population 4,337; Umatilla, 13 doctors, population 26,030; Union, 18 doctors, population 17,399; Wallowa, 4 doctors, population 7,623. These doctors, with the exception on nine, are located in the largest population center in each county. Many areas do not have a doctor within less than twenty miles and many families are thirty or more miles from the nearest doctor.

"Overcrowded school conditions" was mentioned in 10 per cent of the returns. There was a recognition by those people of the lack of enlargement of school plants during the war period and at a time when the child population of condition was somewhat spotted in special sections within the entire geographical area studied. It prevailed to a lesser extent in rural areas where the trend toward large-scale farming has reduced markedly the number of families and consequently the number of children attending elementary schools.

"Lack of youth leaders with adequate training" was mentioned by 10 per cent of those replying. These persons felt that a larger number of trained youth leaders would help to solve some of the social problems involving young people. It seemed to be their feeling, also, that the program of the school should contemplate some leadership of out-of-school activities of young people and adults, particularly inasmuch as this agency seemed to be the only one

*(Continued on page 137)*

# Democracy In Action On A Teacher's College Campus

Dennis Trueblood

President, Student Government Association 1946-47,  
Indiana State Teachers College

Today, in these perilous times, one need not ask himself why there is a need for "Democracy in Action" among young people of college age. The world today is witnessing the greatest struggle of all times be-



tween democratic forces on the one hand, and the forces of totalitarianism on the other. The United States must lead the forces of democracy. But how can she do so if there is not "Democracy in Action" on the citizen level—if every-day citizens do not practice the democratic way of life.

In April of 1946, a group of campus leaders representing all sectors of the student body at Indiana State was called together to re-form a student government. In the preceeding years, the student government had become more and more ineffectual until in 1945 it had been abandoned entirely. Consequently, this group started with nothing.

Typically, student governments have emerged from deliberative groups such as this with a beautifully worded constitution as their main contribution, but paying little attention to the fundamental principles of why a student government should function, of the scope of its activities, of its relationship with the faculty-admini-

stration and with the student body, of the clear definition of its authority, and of the importance of its being representative of the student body. Not so this group. By research in libraries and private offices and consultation with persons on campus familiar with student government and with off-campus experts in the field of student government, the group gathered ideas and purpose in preparation for their task.

When this group began to put words on paper that formed their constitution, *they knew*, "why a student government." The motivating fact behind the establishment of a new student government at Indiana State was not the usual one given by many such student groups when establishing a student government—to form an instrument with which to curb faculty-administration power. The reason "why a student government" at Indiana State was that reason which is the only valid reason for student government—to perpetuate the ideal of "Democracy in Action". If those students in the Teachers' Colleges of today, who are going to be the teachers of tomorrow, are not ingrained with the philosophy of democracy, how are they going to teach successfully the democratic way of life. If democracy is going to win the battle against totalitarianism, it must be firmly based in the people. How can the democratic way of life be perpetuated if we heartily espouse its cause throughout the other countries of

the world but do not practice it in our own country. In the past century and a half, there has been too little "Democracy in Action" and too much totalitarianism in our school systems. This condition can not continue to exist if our students of today are to be expected to espouse the democratic way of life. The place to change these conditions existant for the past century and a half is in the Teachers' College. Thus, the "why a student government" at Indiana State Teachers College.

When this group began to put words on paper that formed their constitution, *they knew something about the scope of activities which a student government should govern*. "It shall have the power to supervise all student extra-curricular activities, establish the policies under which student extra-curricular activities are to be conducted, and to appoint or delegate the responsibility of appointing all committee chairmen for any all-campus affairs not sponsored by some established campus or college organization." (Sec. 2, Art. II). Within these words lies the definition of the authority of the student government at Indiana State. In the by-laws the definition of extra-curricular activities further clarifies the definition of authority. "Any activity, endeavor, intent, or concern exhibited or attempted by a student in junior or senior college or graduate school designed to increase, enhance, and fulfill the duties and advantages of education outside the realm of the classroom and in keeping with the finest precepts of a complete education, shall be designated as an extra-curricular activity." (By-law 13).

When this group began to put words on paper that formed their constitution, *they knew the importance of proper relationship with the faculty-administration and with the student body*. "At

the first meeting of each quarter, the SGA Presidents' Assembly shall discuss and present ideas from the student body on what projects the SGA Council should undertake during the current term. All ideas or projects shall be channelled to the appropriate council committee for proper action. At the second meeting of each quarter, the SGA Presidents' Assembly shall be informed of the action taken on the ideas or projects presented at the first meeting of the term. The SGA Presidents' Assembly shall then report to their particular organization the results of the action taken on the ideas or projects presented in the first meeting of the term. The president of each member organization can then ask for ideas or projects to be presented at the next meeting of the SGA Presidents' Assembly." (Sec. 4, Art IV). In the above quotation lies the basis of the relationship of the student government with the student body. To implement the ideas and projects coming from the SGA Presidents' Assembly is the duty of the *Improvement Committee* of the student government. The Improvement Committee secures action on many of these ideas or projects through a joint meeting with the Administrative Council of the College. This meeting provides an opportunity for discussion of not only student problems but college problems as a whole. On these meetings is based the relationship of the student government with the faculty-administration. The coordination of the Presidents' Assembly meetings with those of the Improvement Committee—Administrative Council is definitely "Democracy in Action". These meetings provide the student government with the opportunity to reach both the student body and the faculty-administration, a *must* under any system of student government. All too often student governments fail because

they become autonomous units.

When this group began to put words on paper that formed their constitution, *they knew the importance of a student government being representative of the student body*. Often unfair representation renders a student government ineffective. Too many student governments have failed because of campus politics and their effect upon the quality of representation. In fact, the previous student government at Indiana State had failed because of this factor. In an attempt to counter this evil, the representation of the student government was drawn up so that it would be impossible for any one pressure group to elect a majority to the student government in a direct election. The majority of the seats on the Student Government were allotted to representative organizations so that every student on campus would be guaranteed some representation in the student government.

A constitution does not make a student government. Too many student governments have been ineffective because this factor was not recognized. Not so at Indiana State. The ultimate success or failure of student governments stems from the administration of its defined authority. One of the difficulties inherent in democracy, whether it be a student government or Congress, is the problem of encouraging individual members of the student government to accept their responsibilities for the successful operation of the organization. Responsibility of thinking for the student government, not selfishly, must be accepted by these representatives if student government is to be successful. Without this sense of group responsibility, no student government can be successful regardless of how perfect the structure as defined by the constitution. Better to have a clearly defined small scope of

authority well administered than a large undefined scope of authority poorly administered. This factor has been recognized at Indiana State and after a year and a half of operation the student government has reached the point where it must evaluate its position in relation to the acceptance of successful administration within its defined authority. A successful student government is a dynamic, not a static, organization. It must *grow* to its full *accountability*.

In evaluation one must look to the functions of the student government. "In order that the students of Indiana State may have a social instrument by which they may cooperate in stimulating, encouraging, organizing, and regulating student activities on campus, a student government association shall be organized." This statement of the preamble embodies the functions of Indiana State's student government. From the preamble emanates the philosophy behind the activities of the student government.

To stimulate and encourage student activities, the student government has set up a Personnel Problems Committee. It has been the goal of this committee to determine what activities students would enjoy and what activities would be beneficial to the student. Realizing fully that one of the ultimate aims of all students should be to improve themselves as social beings, the Personnel Problems Committee conducted a survey of student activity, membership in organizations, and interests in extra-curricular activities. In coordination with the Personnel Division of the College, the results of the survey have been tabulated and are now in the process of being evaluated to determine what action needs to be taken to stimulate and encourage student activities.

To organize student activities  
(Continued on page 139)

# A Study of the Vocational and Professional Choices of Freshmen at Indiana State

Charles Hardaway

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Indiana State Teachers College

The natural supposition would be that a student enters a teacher's college to become a teacher. However, the teachers colleges, and particularly Indiana State Teachers College, are preparing individuals for numerous vocations and professions in addition to the teaching profession.

To what extent is Indiana State Teachers College serving as a teachers college in the actual training of teachers, and to what extent is Indiana State serving to prepare students for other vocational or professional fields? A partial answer to these questions may be found in the following report of a survey concerning the choice of curriculum of the freshmen enrolled in Indiana State Teachers College.

The data for this study were obtained from the trial programs filed by all students listed as freshmen attending Indiana State

in the fall term, 1946. The trial program is a pre-registration form upon which the student states whether he is on a teaching curriculum or a non-teaching curriculum. If he indicates he is preparing for teaching, he states his field, either elementary or secondary, and his major subject. If he indicates he is on a non-teaching curriculum, he also states his pre-professional curriculum or vocational interest. From these data the office of the registrar is able to assist the student in selecting courses suitable to his particular field of training.

The data may not be entirely representative of the usual curricula choices at Indiana State, inasmuch as there were a large number of veteran and overage students enrolling in the college during the term included in the survey. This factor might possibly result in a trend away from

teaching choices. Table I presents a summary of the data obtained from the trial programs. Seven hundred fifteen students, or 57.6 per cent, indicated they were enrolled in college on a teaching curriculum.

A further analysis of the data concerning the two groups ("teaching" freshmen and "non-teaching" freshmen) is significant in that it shows to some degree the vocational and professional fields of the "non-teaching" freshmen, and also determines the number of "teaching" freshmen interested in elementary school teaching and those preferring secondary school teaching. Another bit of evidence is produced relative to the critical shortage of elementary teachers when it is noted that only six per cent of the students planned to become teachers prefer the elementary field. Tables II and III present the statistical data on the interests of the students in the study.

The writer felt it would be of some significance to include in the survey the major preference or comprehensive area of the students indicating a desire to teach in the secondary school, or in other words, the fields in which the group will be qualified to teach upon graduation. Nearly twenty-five per cent were preparing to teach physical education. Table IV presents a complete summary of the teaching choices of the students who intend to enter the teaching field in the secondary schools.

All freshmen entering Indiana State are required to take various orientation and intelligence tests. In view of this fact, it was felt that a comparison of the achievement on the different tests by the various vocational groups might be of interest, or might indicate any noticeable difference in apparent ability or intelligence.

(Continued on page 138)

TABLE I  
CURRICULUM CHOICES OF FRESHMEN

	No.	Per Cent
Freshmen on teaching curriculum	715	57.6
Freshmen on non-teaching curriculum	476	38.3
All others*	51	4.1
Total	1242	100.0

\*Includes freshmen for whom cards were incomplete, curriculum not clear or not stated, or students who were "undecided."

TABLE II  
AREA OF TRAINING OF STUDENTS ON  
TEACHING CURRICULUM

Area of training	No.	Per Cent
Secondary school curriculum	672	94.0
Elementary school curriculum	43	6.0
Total	715	100.0

# A Study of Service Enterprises

Ralph Watson

*This article is an abstract of a doctoral dissertation submitted to Indiana University.*

The evolution of the business administration of quasi-legal enterprises in State Teachers Colleges is an interesting phase of the history of education in those colleges. The housing and feeding of students, the operation of Union Buildings, purchase, storage, and distribution of books, supplies, and equipment have created complicated problems of administration. Due to the multiplication of activities and the accompanying demands for physical accommodations, the problem has become one of finding ways and means of supporting adequately these enterprises without undue financial burden to the student body and without undue waste of public funds.

The problem was to formulate acceptable principles and standards for the business and financial administration of service enterprises operated by State Teachers Colleges. The following enterprises were included; book stores, housing of students, food service, and student unions. Principles and standards of procedure for the following aspects of each enterprise were formulated:

Basic financial policies

Organization of management and supervision in terms of authority, responsibility, and function

Financial management—collection of fees, payment of bills, protection of funds

Financial control—budgeting, accounting, auditing, financial reports, and allocation of costs

Administration of supplies and

equipment—purchasing, storage, distribution, and accounting

Property management—operation, maintenance and conservation of physical facilities, accounting and insurance

Personnel administration, selection, training, supervision and pay of personnel

## DELIMINATION OF THE PROBLEM

The study was limited to the business and financial management of the services indicated, primarily from the standpoint of institutional administration. No effort was made to evaluate the enterprises in terms of the quality and extent of services provided. Since these services are quasi-business enterprises, the study was devoted to the problems of institutional management and control rather than to the techniques of operation.

## PROCEDURES AND SOURCES OF DATA

A preliminary analysis of each enterprise was made to determine the problems in the various areas of business and financial management indicated above. A check list of policies, principles, and procedures was made from a survey of the literature on the administration of service enterprises in colleges, universities, and public school systems, and tentative standards were formulated for each enterprise. The check list was used as the basis for investigating the policies and practices followed in the administration of service enterprises conducted by

the following State Teacher Colleges:

Ball State Teachers College at Muncie, Indiana

Indiana State Teachers College at Terre Haute, Indiana

Eastern Illinois State Teachers College at Charleston, Illinois

Southern Illinois Normal University at Carbondale, Illinois

Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College at Richmond, Kentucky

Western Kentucky State Teachers College at Bowling Green, Kentucky

Western Michigan College of Education at Kalamazoo, Michigan

Michigan State Normal School at Ypsilanti, Michigan

Southwest Missouri State Teachers College at Springfield, Missouri

Southeast Missouri State Teachers College at Cape Girardeau, Missouri

Kent State University at Kent, Ohio

Bowling Green State University at Bowling Green, Ohio

The investigation was made by personal visitation to each institution. An attempt was made to validate the check list in terms of the practices and problems observed in the institutions visited and the reactions of those responsible for the management of the respective enterprises. A final list of principles, policies, and standards of procedure for the business administration of service enterprises was formulated.

## Chapter II

### PRINCIPLES AND CRITERIA

After careful study of the literature in the field of business and financial administration of service enterprises, criteria were selected which, it was felt, provided essential standards for the procedures to be analyzed. A discussion of the criteria follows:

*Criterion 1—Auxiliary enter-*

*prises should be self-supporting.*

Auxiliary enterprises and activities are carried on chiefly as a service to students and faculty and are of a quasi-business nature. As such, they should be self-supporting.

These enterprises are operated to serve the campus community and are not primarily educational in nature. Such enterprises are book stores, dormitories, cafeterias, and Student Unions. Since all students do not profit directly or to the same extent from these enterprises, they should be owned and operated by the college, but supported financially by those whom they serve. As they are distinct from the instructional departments, it is questionable if state funds should be used either directly or indirectly to support them.

*Criterion 2—Management and supervision should be centralized.*

Effective administration depends upon centralized executive responsibility and authority. Competent officers responsible to the chief executive should be selected to direct and manage the enterprises in accordance with the policies established by the board and the executive.

Every business, whether public or private, must be properly administered if it is to pay dividends in money or in service. If the administration is to function properly, it is necessary that responsibility and authority be clearly defined. It is an accepted principle that the formation of policies is the function of the board and the carrying out of those policies is the responsibility of the administrative staff. This would imply that the manager of the enterprise would be given freedom in carrying out the policies formulated and would be permitted to select, train, and supervise the personnel.

*Criterion 3—Financial management should be centralized.*

Effective financial management depends upon centralized respon-

sibility and authority with competent officers responsible to the chief executive operating in accordance with the policies established by the board and the chief executive.

The financial management of an institution is important in that the efficiency of the institution is determined by the amount of revenue received and the wisdom with which it is expended. The advantages derived from routinizing will appear in lower costs with increased services rendered. Business enterprises have realized that those procedures which facilitate the smooth functioning of the organization and cut overhead costs contribute to profits.

No college or university should attempt to carry on its affairs without competent officers to direct its financial and business matters. Business responsibility as far as possible should be centralized. The collection of fees, payment of bills, and the protection of funds is an important part of the financial management.

*Criterion 4—Financial control should be maintained at all times.*

The records and system of accounting should furnish the data necessary for effective control at all times. No business can be effectively administered without ample, meaningful, and accurate information. There should be an annual budget covering all current financial operations and funds. This budget should provide support to the different departments and activities in specific amounts and should be prepared by the executive officer of the institution with the aid and advice of the business officer and the heads of the departments. It should be reviewed and approved by the governing board before the opening of the fiscal year.

When approved, the budget should be followed; modification should be made only by proper authority. The proper administration of the budget is impossible

unless the status of the budget appropriations for each account is immediately apparent from the records department. The system of accounting, to be an effective instrument of control, must provide a complete check on all purchases and payments. Two distinct functions of an accounting system are (1) to furnish data for reports concerning the financial condition and operation of the institution and (2) to establish the fidelity of those who handle the fund. It is generally agreed that all accounts of the institution should be kept by or under the business office.

The accounts of the institution should be audited at least annually by independent accountants not connected with the institution. The fundamental purpose of issuing an annual report of college finances is to have accurate information regarding the financial condition and history of the college available for distribution among the trustees, alumni, officers, faculty, friends, and patrons of the institution; consequently, the officers who present a clear, concise, and easily understood report perform a real service to the institution and to the public.

*Criterion 5—Administration of supplies and equipment should be centralized.*

Effective administration of supplies and equipment depends upon centralized executive responsibility and authority. Competent officers responsible to the chief executive should be selected to purchase, store, distribute, and account for all supplies and equipment in accordance with the policies established by the board and the executive.

Every phase of the work in an educational institution requires the use of appropriate supplies and equipment. The problem is seeing that all supplies are properly selected, purchased, distributed, and used. To make pur-

chases efficiently requires experience; therefore, all purchases should be made by or under the direction of a central purchasing officer. This officer should have authority to standardize general supplies and equipment and to make purchases of the same. In the purchase of special supplies and equipment, the purchasing agent should endeavor to meet the specifications of the division or department concerned. The system of purchasing should provide for a check of all purposed purchases against budget authorization before obligations are incurred and for recording of obligations entered into through purchase orders or contracts against budget authorization to which they relate. As far as practicable, purchases should be made by competitive bids. The final commitment of the institution should be made only by or under the authority of the purchasing office.

In order to secure a maximum return for money spent on supplies and equipment, it is essential not only that items be carefully selected, but that they be adequately stored and available for distribution when and where needed. It is recommended that centralized stores be maintained and that distribution be made only upon requisition. Adequate property accounting includes two aspects: Appraisal and inventory. The appraisal function is concerned with the original costs, depreciation, and present value of property. The inventory function deals with the recording of property values, cost of acquisition, location, date of purchase, unit, and vendor. Both appraisal and inventory are important for efficient administration.

*Criterion 6—Property management should be efficiently organized.*

For efficient administration there should be suitable centralized organization for the man-

agement of the physical plant of the institution covering all phases of its operation and maintenance.

If the institution is to function with efficiency and economy, it is essential that there be a well-trained business staff. This staff should be under the direct supervision of the chief business officer of the institution who is responsible to the chief executive and through him to the board.

It is clearly evident that unless there is a carefully planned maintenance program to make needed repairs promptly, the plant will rapidly deteriorate. One index to a good maintenance program is the consistency of the budget allowance for maintenance over a period of years. The frequency of detailed inspection of buildings is also an important factor in the maintenance program. The development of an adequate maintenance program in any system is impossible without records upon which to base the schedule of repairs.

Some form of record supply items is necessary for adequate accounting. Economy and adequate accounting control require that all supplies remaining at the end of the year be listed. Not only does the annual inventory prevent the accumulation of surplus materials, but it is essential in determining the exact cost of supplies consumed during the year.

All buildings should be inspected regularly to prevent fire hazards. The administration should endeavor to obtain the lowest insurance rates possible, where schedule rating prevails, by eliminating fire hazards. This may be done by the correction of faulty placement of equipment, the elimination of defective wiring, by adequate fireproofing of boiler rooms, and good housekeeping.

*Criterion 7—Personnel administration should adopt definite procedures for employment.*

Efficient personnel administra-

tion depends upon definite procedures for the employment, training, and retirement of the personnel of the entire institution. The rules and regulations should be established by the board and administered by the chief executive and his staff.

The board should establish a definite procedure for authorization of employment and training of personnel. Unless rules and regulations are established, too many employees or incompetent ones may be procured. The selection and training of the personnel within the policies outlined by the board is the function of the administration.

Employees work best when the administration provides definite incentives. Security and rate of pay are two important ones. Tenure should be based on ability and not on favoritism and politics. The schedule of pay must be high enough to make them happy in their work. Of almost equal importance with the amount of salary is the way in which the salary is determined. A fair salary schedule, honestly administered, is valuable in building and maintaining morale which is important in the administration of all personnel, but especially so in colleges and universities. During recent years one of the important public questions has been the advisability of providing economic security for all workers through a system of pensions, annuities, or retirement allowances. The public has apparently accepted the principle that all workers should have such benefits. This would infer that some type of insurance and some retirement provision should be provided by the institution.

#### *Sample Check List*

Modifications of this check list were used for each of the enterprises studied, one copy for the president, one for the business manager, and one for the director of the enterprise. The results of the check lists for each enterprise

in each school were tabulated and recorded on a master checklist.

#### *Dormitory Check List*

##### A. Basic Policies

1. The dormitory is operated to serve the student body and not for financial gain.

2. All profits\* are used for expansion and improvements if needed. If not needed, they are transferred to the college general fund.

3. The dormitories are self-supporting and self-perpetuating.

4. The dormitories are charged rental for the use of college buildings.

5. The dormitories are charged for all materials and service furnished by the college.

B. Organization and supervision in terms of authority, supervision, and function.

1. The dormitory is authorized by the college board.

2. The dormitory is managed by a competent, well-trained director.

3. The director of the dormitory is employed by the college board upon the recommendation of the president.

4. The dormitory director is responsible for recruiting and training the dormitory personnel.

5. The dormitory director is under the direct supervision of the business manager of the college.

6. All employees of the dormitory are under the direct supervision of the director.

7. The function of the dormitory is to serve the student body of the college.

C. Financial management, collection of fees, payment of bills, and the protection of funds.

1. All fees are determined by the college board upon the recommendation of the president with the advice of the business manager and the director.

2. The financial management of the housing of students is centralized in the business office.

3. All fees are collected by the business office.

4. The time and place for the payment of fees is determined by the business office.

5. A penalty is added for delinquent fees.

6. All bills are paid through the business office on standard voucher forms.

7. Bills are paid when due and cash discounts are taken.

8. All equipment and supplies are carefully checked with the invoice both as to quality and quantity before the bills are paid.

9. Cash is banked daily by the business office.

10. Fidelity bond is furnished all employees who handle funds.

11. All funds are insured against embezzlement, fire, and theft.

D. Financial control—budgeting, accounting, auditing, financial reports, and allocation of costs.

1. The housing budget is prepared by the business manager of the college with the advice of the president and the director of housing.

2. The housing budget is independent of the college budget.

3. The budget is strictly adhered to when passed by the board.

4. The budget is controlled as other budgets are controlled.

5. A double-entry system of accounting is used.

6. The accounting system furnishes data for reports concerning the fidelity of those who handle funds.

8. Income and expenses are separated.

9. The housing accounts are segregated from all other accounts of the college.

10. Ledger accounts are kept with receipts and disbursements to show the principal kinds of each.

11. All accounts are audited annually by competent, independent auditors.

12. The audit contains balance sheets and supporting statements of fund balances.

13. An annual report is made to the president and to the board of trustees.

14. The inventory is evaluated in the annual report.

15. Depreciation is evaluated in the annual report.

16. All costs of operation such as heat, light, rent, repairs, depreciation, and administration are included whether furnished directly or indirectly.

17. The dormitories are reimbursed for services, supplies, and equipment provided officers, teachers, and guests of the college.

18. The accrual or cash basis is used in reporting income and expense.

19. The reports have statements of current income and expenditures, also profit-and-loss statements.

20. The reports are based on the budget.

21. Monthly reports are made for administrative purposes.

22. Depreciation reserves take into account replacement costs.

23. Rates for depreciation are established and depreciation is computed on the original costs.

24. Replacements are paid from depreciation reserves.

25. New equipment is counted as capital outlay.

E. Administration of supplies and equipment, purchasing, storage, distribution, and accounting.

1. Records are kept as an aid to purchasing.

2. Purchases are made on a competitive basis.

3. All purchases are made through a central purchasing office.

4. When possible, purchases are made in large quantities.

5. All purchases are checked by the director with the inventory both as to quality and quantity, when received.

6. Purchases are authorized by the director in line with the budget.

7. Adequate storage facilities are provided.

\*Profits as used here refer to excess of receipts over expenditures.

8. Centralized stores are maintained.

9. A perpetual inventory is kept.

10. All accounts are kept in the business office.

11. The director of the dormitory receives regular and full reports from the central accounting office indicating the status of all dormitory accounts.

12. Each employee and each room is accountable for the supplies and equipment charged to it.

13. The accounting system provides a complete record of all funds received and expended and the amount of each transaction.

14. The accounting system is organized in sufficient detail to make it possible to determine unit costs.

15. The accounting system requires the filing of all original and supplementary data of a transaction.

16. The accounting department pays only for such materials and supplies as have been purchased in accordance with the required forms and procedures.

F. Property management—operation, maintenance and conservation of physical facilities, accounting, and insurance.

1. The cooperation of the student body is maintained.

2. Cost accounting is used to determine the efficiency of operation.

3. The dormitory has an adequate, well-trained custodial staff.

4. Adequate storage space is available for supplies and equipment.

5. The dormitory staff is under the direct supervision of the director of the dormitory.

6. Repair and maintenance is done on work orders, signed by the director.

7. Repairs and maintenance is under the direct supervision of the superintendent of buildings and grounds.

8. A perpetual inventory of supplies and equipment is kept.

9. Reserves for depreciation are set aside.

10. Each employee and each room is held responsible for the equipment and supplies assigned to it.

11. Provisions are made for renewal and replacement of equipment.

12. The buildings are regularly inspected to prevent fires.

13. All properties are insured for their true value.

#### G. Personnel Administration

1. The permanent, full-time employees are selected by the college board upon the recommendation of the president and the director of the dormitories.

2. The same standards are used in selecting the dormitory personnel as are used in selecting other personnel of the college.

3. The dormitory personnel is carefully selected and carefully trained.

4. All employees of the dormitory are required to have an annual physical examination.

5. Student help is used for part-time employment.

6. Regular staff meetings are held.

7. The director of the dormitory is responsible for training and supervising the dormitory staff.

8. The dormitory personnel is paid on the same basis as other personnel with similar positions in the college.

9. The working conditions and the hours are the same in the dormitory as in the other departments of the college.

10. All permanent employees in the dormitory are on a twelve months' basis.

11. All employees in the dormitory are on a salary schedule.

12. Group insurance is provided for all dormitory employees.

13. Provisions for retirement are provided for all dormitory employees.

## SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES

### Findings:

The analysis of the difference in the business and financial administration in the twelve schools studied and the applications of the criteria gave as the more important findings the following:

#### 1. *Basic financial policies*

The enterprises considered in this study were operated to serve the campus community and not for financial gain. All the enterprises were being subsidized; the amounts varied from the cost of rent and administration in some schools to the cost of rent, administration, utilities, and maintenance in others, depending upon the school and the enterprise.

As all the enterprises were subsidized, it was difficult to determine the true profits, if any, but the excess of receipts over expenditures was used for expansion and improvement of the enterprises, if needed. If not needed, they were used in the operation of the colleges, usually for some activity to aid the student body.

#### 2. *Organization and supervision*

The enterprises were authorized by the college boards and, in the opinions of the presidents and business managers, in most cases were directed by competent, well-trained directors who were employed by the college boards upon the recommendations of the presidents. The directors were responsible for recruiting the personnel in most of the schools and were under the direct supervision of the business managers of the colleges in most schools.

#### 3. *Financial management*

In a majority of the schools the fees were determined by the college boards upon the recommendations of the presidents with the advice of the business managers of the colleges and the directors of the enterprises. Usually there was a penalty for delinquent fees. The financial management of the

enterprises was about equally divided between the business offices of the colleges and the business offices of the enterprise directors. All bills were paid on standard voucher forms either through the business offices of the colleges or the business offices of the directors. It was the policy to pay bills when due and to take cash discounts. According to the business managers and the directors, equipment and supplies were carefully checked by the directors before the bills were paid, and the funds were banked daily in most schools. The funds were not adequately protected in some schools.

#### 4. *Financial control*

The enterprises in some schools were not operated on budgets. In most of the schools operating on budgets the college business managers prepared the budgets with the advice of the presidents and the directors.

The budgets of each enterprise were independent of other budgets, and they were controlled in the same manner that other budgets in the colleges were controlled. According to the business managers and the directors, the budgets were strictly adhered to in most cases when passed by the boards.

Most of the schools used a double-entry system of accounting which furnished data for reports concerning the operation and financial condition of the enterprises and the determination of the fidelity of those who handled funds. Separate accounts were kept for each enterprise and the accounts of each enterprise were segregated from all other accounts of the college. The enterprises, although subsidized, were reimbursed for services, supplies, and equipment furnished the colleges.

All accounts were audited annually by competent, independent auditors. The audit contained balance sheets and supporting statements of fund balances. Depreciation was evaluated in the

annual report in a majority of the schools.

An annual report was made to the presidents and the boards of trustees in most schools, and the inventory was evaluated in the annual report in approximately half of the schools. In a majority of the schools, the cash rather than the accrual basis was used in reporting income. The reports contained statements of current income and expenditures and profit-and-loss. In the schools operating on a budget, the reports were based on the budget. Monthly reports were made for administrative purposes in some of the schools. Depreciation was not computed in some of the schools, if computed, it was based on the original costs. Replacements were paid for out of depreciation reserves in few schools, and new equipment was usually counted as capital outlay.

#### 5. *Administration of supplies and Equipment.*

Supplies and equipment were not purchased on a competitive basis in most enterprises in most schools. Adequate records were kept as an aid to purchasing in a majority of the schools, and in a few the purchases were made through a central purchasing office in large quantities, but as a general rule, the director of each enterprise made his own purchases and checked the supplies and equipment against the inventories when received. All purchases were authorized by the directors within the budgets in those enterprises operating on budgets.

Few schools had adequate storage facilities for all of their enterprises. Centralized stores like centralized purchasing was not the general rule. Only a few schools kept perpetual inventories, but an annual physical inventory was usually taken. The managers did not always receive regular and full reports from the accounting offices, but such reports were

usually available upon request. Each employee and each department was held responsible for supplies and equipment charged to it. The accounts were easily checked and audited, and the accounting systems gave a complete record of funds received and expended and the amount of each transaction.

According to the business managers and the directors, the accounting departments paid only for such equipment and supplies as were purchased in accordance with the required forms and procedures. In most enterprises the accounting systems were not organized in sufficient detail to determine unit costs.

#### 6. *Property management*

In the opinion of the presidents, business managers, and directors, the administration, faculty and student body cooperate in the operation of the enterprises. Cost accounting was used to determine the efficiency of operation in few of the schools. According to the presidents, business managers, and directors, there were adequate, well-trained custodial staffs under the direct supervision of the directors in most of the schools.

Repair and maintenance were under the direct supervision of the superintendent of buildings and grounds in all the schools but one. In that school the head of the industrial arts department was directly responsible for repairs and maintenance. In approximately a third of the schools, the directors signed work orders for repairs and maintenance.

Adequate storage facilities were available for supplies and equipment in a majority of the schools in most of the enterprises. Provisions were made for renewal and replacement of equipment in few schools, and the equipment was usually counted as capital outlay. Each employee and each department was usually held responsible for the supplies and

equipment assigned to it. A perpetual inventory of supplies and equipment was kept in only two schools, and five schools set aside reserves for depreciation.

All buildings were regularly inspected to prevent fires, but in only four schools was an inventory maintained for insurance purposes. Insurance programs were inadequate in most schools; only three or four schools were insured for their true value, and the same number carried eighty per cent co-insurance. The remainder of the schools were without protection and were assuming their own risk.

#### 7. Personnel Administration

The directors were employed by the college boards upon the recommendations of the college presidents, in all of the schools but one. In this school the director was employed by the president. The directors were responsible for the recruiting of their own personnel in all the schools but two. In those schools the non-academic personnel was recruited by the president requesting them from the state civil service board. If qualified applicants were available, they were referred to the positions by this board. If no applicants were available, the request was referred to the local patronage committee, who made the referrals. After employment, the directors were responsible for the training of the personnel in all schools.

Permanent employees in the service enterprises were employed on a twelve months' basis. The rate of pay, hours, and working conditions were the same as other personnel of the college with similar positions. In only two schools were the personnel required to have annual physical examinations; five schools required physical examinations at the time of employment; and five schools required no examinations at all except in those departments where it was necessary to meet state re-

quirements as in food preparation.

Student help was used for part-time employment, and in the opinion of the presidents, business managers, and directors, the personnel on a whole was carefully selected and carefully trained. In nine schools all employees of the enterprises were on salary schedules, and in eight they were under the state annuity system. In three of the schools group insurance was provided.

#### Implications:

From the data presented throughout this study, it is evident that state teachers colleges should enlarge their conception of the business nature of their service enterprises. The utilization of business principles in administering the affairs of the service enterprises should be stressed.

All the enterprises were being subsidized. The amount of the subsidization was unknown to the administration in most schools. This practice cannot be justified. It seems obvious that subsidizing the operation of service enterprises from general funds, except for extreme emergencies, cannot be defended. Even in extreme emergencies where subsidization is necessary and desirable, it is the function of the board to make the necessary appropriation; and it is the function of the accounting department to keep accurate records in order that the cost of operation be definitely determined at all times.

It seems that it would be desirable for all the directors of the various enterprises to be under the direct supervision of the chief business officer of the college. This would relieve the chief administrator of the college of administrative detail and consolidate the business in one department. It does not seem necessary for the various enterprises to have their own business offices; this causes duplication of equipment and personnel. As the service enterprises

are a part of the college, all the business operations should be handled through the central business office.

There seems to be no justification for any state teachers college to operate its service enterprises without budgets. If any degree of control is to be maintained, it is absolutely necessary that a budget be prepared and strictly adhered to when passed by the board until or unless modified by the board. Monthly reports should be made for administrative purposes. Depreciation rates should be established, and depreciation reserves should be set aside and used for replacements.

The administration of supplies and equipment was inadequate in most of the schools studied. It is generally agreed that all purchases of an institution should be made through a central purchasing office. Centralized stores like centralized purchasing are essential for efficient administration. It would seem desirable for the accounting in most service enterprises to be sufficiently detailed to make it possible to determine unit costs. This is especially true in the foods departments.

It would seem necessary that all employees have an annual physical examination—not only as a protection for the college, but for the employees themselves. If colleges are to attract and retain efficient personnel, it is necessary that they should provide salary schedules, some type of annuity system, and group insurance. Most colleges do not come under the social security law, but should provide the same security and working conditions as industry.

It is hoped that administrators will find criteria, measures, and procedure developed throughout this study helpful in analyzing their problems of business management of service enterprises.

(Continued from page 123)

themselves in the library. Second, students are confronted by a "case" situation or problem and in class discussion of that "case" the non-directive technique is employed. i.e., students develop their own answers and take the discussion where they feel it needs to go, with little interference from the instructor. Third, students are assigned field studies which allow them to utilize sources other than the library while investigating practical problems in their own home towns or in the college community.

This past semester as one problem assignment the instructors in the Natural Science Core course presented to their students all the proof at their disposal that the sun revolved in an orbit around the earth and then turned the students loose in the library to disprove the concept. At last report several of the students still did not believe that the earth goes around the sun, but the vast majority of the freshmen were challenged by the situation and did a creditable job on a phase of natural science which might otherwise have been a rather routine and uninspired portion of the course.

Typical of the problem method as employed in the Social Science Core course, also known as "Core 3" or "Problems in Public Affairs," is the assignment to students of a case or situation, often of a "hospital" nature with no clearcut solution, which comes up later for class discussion, sometimes after reading supplementary to the case, sometimes on the basis of general knowledge and the reading of the case alone. Here the students face up to a real problem situation, study it individually, discuss it informally among themselves in their rooms, bring their ideas to class, col-

lectively analyze the case, and finally arrive at their own general conclusions. The students know they are dealing with live problems and that for the most part the instructor will allow them to develop their own ideas and certainly will not impose his own on them.

Preparation of the cases, which normally consists of a five to fifteen page statement in disguised form of a problem situation in an actual community, is usually done by a member of the instructional staff after interviews and independent observation. To the extent that the material collected can be set down accurately so as to fairly represent the issues involved, the student can then be introduced to the practical facts of a given situation in their full complexity. Furthermore, in an effort to support his analysis, the student may be driven to study the basic literature or theories of social science.

The case version of the problem method as adapted to Core 3 at Colgate is a modification of the technique used by the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration in graduate courses and by Harvard College in its undergraduate courses in "Human Relations."<sup>2</sup> Several instructors in Public Affairs either attended the Harvard Business School before coming to Colgate or visited there for a semester to study at first hand the case system as applied at Harvard on both the graduate and undergraduate levels. It has been chiefly through their leadership that establishment of the case technique has been effected this past semester in Core 3.

Public Affairs is to be a full year course, meeting three times

<sup>2</sup> See Wallace Brett Donham, "An Experimental Course in Human Relations in Harvard College," *Journal of General Education*, October, 1947.

per week. It operates in 15 sections, with 20 to 25 men in each group. During the first semester problems have centered around such general topics as "The Individual and His Groups—Structure, Function, Change," "Leadership and Authority in Groups," "The Family," "Minority Groups and the Community," "Local Government and Politics," and "The Schools." During the second semester general topics around which cases will be grouped include "Industry and the Community," "Labor-Management Relations," "The Federal Government," and "International Affairs." It has been the practice to spend no more than one or two days on any single problem situation, with at least four or five such cases focusing on each general topic.

To make Core 3 more practical and to take the student to a primary source of information, students were assigned field study papers at the Thanksgiving and Christmas holidays which served to implement their classroom discussions. At Thanksgiving they interviewed their party precinct captains in connection with "Local Government and Politics" and at Christmas they interviewed members of their home town school boards while studying "The Schools." Interviews were based on questions prepared by members of the Public Affairs instructional staff.

Three major problems have been made establishment of the new Social Science Core program difficult. All were anticipated and calculated to a certain extent, however, before the course was inaugurated. First, the technique of teaching required is one of stimulation of discussion without domination, something which the teacher trained to lecture or carry on textbook-and-recitation classes may find extremely difficult. Second, there were no ready-made materials for such a course and the task of securing information

for and writing of interesting and significant cases for discussion was a heavy responsibility for those assigned that duty. Third, the students themselves were not used to the discussion technique employed and had to adapt themselves to its use.

With the first semester of the new Public Affairs course at its close, it is still much too early to attempt any real assessment of its merits or demerits. Many of the flaws now apparent are only growing pains. Others may be inherent in the system, but to those on the firing line the distinctions are still hazy. Possibly as many as five more or less permanent difficulties have come to light during the first semester. First, because of the range of ability of students in the classes there is a tendency for the discussions to be dominated by a relatively few members of the class unless there is considerable interference in discussion by the instructor. Second, there is apparently a feeling on the part of the students that cases do not require much preparation before class discussion. Third, Colgate freshmen, in spite of the fact that as a class they rate in the upper eight per cent in the nation, are not as prepared by background for discussion as Harvard graduate students or members of the Core 3 teaching staff, so that the level of discussion is not always as stimulating as might be desired. Fourth, coverage of material is greatly reduced by the inductive approach and also by the fact that in discussing several cases within the same general field of interest there is necessarily some repetition. Fifth, because the material is not neatly packaged some students fail to derive a sense of achievement from the discussions.

If there are difficulties, there are also compensations, and members of the Public Affairs teaching staff are probably at the same time Core 3's worst critics and its

greatest boosters. What appear to be the five chief advantages of the problem method seem to more than outweigh the disadvantages. First, after only one semester the men already give evidence of being more analytical, more critical, better able to see several sides of a question. Second, they are learning to express themselves more freely orally, are able to think more clearly in "catch as catch can" discussion. Third, if they learn less than in a more conventional course, it is still more thoroughly learned, less the result of memory and more of the type of knowledge which will remain with the student in post-college years. Fourth, the classroom atmosphere is more informal, less dogmatic, with a concomitant growth of democracy in the student-teacher relationship. Fifth, the give and take of discussion enables the students to get to know and evaluate each other better than would be possible in a more formal classroom.

The teaching staff of the Social Science Core at Colgate University is approaching the case version of the problem method with its eyes wide open. The course is still definitely on the experimental level. While the first results, particularly among the students, have been favorable, no one working with the course is ready to accept it exactly as it is and all staff members are conscious of the fact that several more years of hard work remain before Core 3 can be whipped into really satisfactory form.

It would be logical, perhaps, to ask if the new Public Affairs course is worth all the effort being expended on it. Those of us who are working with it believe it is. There is no one engaged in teaching the course who does not believe that Colgate students who have gone through it will examine changing social situations more objectively than they might otherwise have done and will in later

years as community leaders be more conscious of the need to adapt social, economic, and political institutions to changing conditions. In my judgment, no teachers of social science would be justified in hoping for more worthwhile results from their labor.

Miller-Maaske . . .

(Continued from page 125)

which could provide the necessary trained leadership.

Other problems mentioned to a lesser degree were: A need for public officials to show more interest in youth; the broad problem of juvenile delinquency; more interest in the school by the people of the community; conservation of soil and timber resources and the preservation of wild life resources.

As a part of the survey the question, "Do teachers need to know some things they do not seem to know to attempt an improvement in community conditions?", was answered preponderantly in the affirmative. Suggestions, in the order of frequency of mention, were: (1) to get acquainted and become active in the community; (2) how to exercise leadership in various group activities in the community; (3) how to organize and lead group recreation; (4) how to survey a community to identify the problems; (5) need for a better understanding of civics and politics as they affect the community; (6) practical knowledge of guidance procedures with children; and (7) how to work through the curriculum children's projects in the elementary school to improve local community and home conditions.

*Implication for Pre-Service Teacher Education.* The implications for improvement in the pre-service education of elementary teachers clearly point to the need for special emphasis on the fol-

lowing points, summarized concisely as follows:

1. How to get acquainted and participate as active members of the community.

2. Training in leadership for group community activities. This would require knowledge and techniques of group recreation, knowledge of group organizations, techniques of group discussion, and techniques of leadership with larger groups.

3. Techniques of conducting community surveys for the purpose of identifying outstanding problems for possible solution.

4. Understanding of the problems which can be improved and the solutions that would be practical in individual community situations.

5. Understanding of the various procedures which may be employed in a community to affect desirable changes.

6. The effectiveness and limitations of various school projects in changing and bettering community conditions.

7. How a study of the community influences the thinking of the children in school.

8. The techniques necessary to emphasize improvement of general health and other conditions of home and family living.

*Faculty and Administrative Steps in Improvement of Curriculum.* A first step in developing emphasis on attention to community problems in the teacher education curriculum might well be a series of conferences with the College faculty to orient them to the problems presented in the study. This could readily lead into a study of the curriculum to note the particular courses where emphasis could profitably be centered. Faculty committees and individual members should then give special attention to specific course objectives and the content of the courses. For example, the course in sociology could well develop techniques for ascertain-

ing community problems and give the student actual experience in survey studies.

From the present study it seems clear that prospective teachers should have more assistance and experience in learning how to identify community problems and in developing techniques and procedures through the program of the school for attacking such problems. It appears also that the teacher must have additional training in various forms of leadership, especially for service in the smaller school and rural communities, in order that the impact of the school and its program can exert a more direct and beneficial effect upon improving community and family living conditions.

The present study also points to the definite need for the entire staff of teachers in the school of each community to study intensively the community problems with which they should be vitally concerned. With such an analysis as a guide, the program of the school can be adapted to meet the actual needs of the individual community, and at the same time make the learning process for elementary school children more vital and meaningful. While the pre-service program for the preparation of elementary school teachers can make a beginning, the continuing in-service program for teachers, under the leadership of the school executives, is significantly important if the school in any community is to exercise the statesmanlike leadership which the community has the right to expect from its public school.

From the foregoing it is evident that young teachers going into the schools of eastern Oregon need some very definite information and techniques to cope with the community problems which they will find. These have been listed earlier in this article and it becomes a part of the problem of institutions preparing teachers

for this section to keep this in mind in the development of their curricula in elementary teacher education.

It seems desirable that faculty committees in the various subject fields carefully study the syllabi of their courses and note wherein such developments might well be inserted. The practice teaching program should include as a part of the experiences of the students specific opportunity for observation and participation in problems of this nature. The curriculum committee of the college could then spend a series of meetings to bring about a coordination of the departments in their instruction to meet the needs of students best.

It should be possible for any teacher educating institution to use some such techniques as the foregoing in studying the problems of the area which they serve and bring about a resultant improvement in their pre-service program through appropriate followup procedures.

## Hardaway . . .

(Continued from page 128)

Table V presents the data found in the comparison.

A summary of some of the more significant conclusions based on the findings of this study is as follows:

1. Nearly sixty per cent of the freshmen enrolled in the Fall Term, 1946, were on a teaching curriculum.

2. Only six per cent of the students on a teaching curriculum stated preference for elementary teaching.

3. The majority of the freshmen enrolled on non-teaching curricula were attending Indiana State in order to obtain preparatory courses for other professions.

4. Of the students enrolled on secondary school teaching curricula, 24.5 per cent were major-

TABLE III  
PRE-PROFESSIONAL OR VOCATIONAL AREA OF TRAINING  
OF STUDENTS ON NON-TEACHING CURRICULUM

Area of interest	No.	Per Cent
Academic course	102	21.43
Pre-Engineering	98	20.59
Pre-Medicine	63	13.24
Business Education	94	19.75
Pre-Law	20	4.20
Pre-Dental	18	3.78
Pre-Pharmacy	11	2.31
Pre-Veterinary	7	1.47
Pre-Nursing	5	1.05
Optometry	3	0.63
Mortician	2	0.42
Dietetics	2	0.42
Agriculture (Scientific)	5	1.05
Architecture	2	0.42
Arts and crafts	2	0.42
Journalism	2	0.42
Forestry	4	0.84
All others*	33	6.93
Total	476	100.00

\*Includes those areas which had a frequency of only one, and those students who did not state their interest.

TABLE IV  
SUBJECT MATTER OF STUDENTS PREPARING  
FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHING

Major subject	No.	Per Cent
Arts and crafts	22	3.3
Business education (commerce)	110	16.3
Foreign Language	8	1.2
Home Economics	31	4.6
Industrial Arts	62	9.2
Language Arts (English, Speech, Radio, Journalism)	80	11.9
Library Science	3	0.4
Mathematics	28	4.2
Music	40	6.0
Physical Education (Health Ed.)	164	24.5
Science	44	6.5
Social Studies	60	8.9
Not stated	20	3.0
Total	672	100.0

TABLE V  
COMPARISON OF VARIOUS GROUPS OF  
FRESHMEN ON ORIENTATION TESTS

Group	Average Percentile ACE Psch.	Average Percentile H. S. Cont. Test	Average Percentile* Eng. Test
Students on Teaching Curriculum	33	53	13
Students on Non-Teaching Curriculum	38	62	7
Pre-Engineering	44	66	9
Pre-Medic	45	69	6
Academic (Non-Teaching)	36	62	6
Business (Non-Teaching)	30	56	11

\*All percentiles are based upon national norms

ing in physical education: 16.3 per cent in business education, and 11.9 per cent in Language Arts (English, Speech, Radio, etc.).

5. The "non-teaching" freshmen made higher scores on the Psychological and High school Content examinations than did the "teaching" freshmen; however, the latter group excelled the former group on the English test.

6. In general, of the larger groups of the "non-teaching" freshmen, the Pre-Engineers and the Pre-Medics excelled the Academic and the Business and Commerce students on the Orientation tests.

## Trueblood . . .

(Continued from page 127)

is a function of the student government. The student government from time to time organizes activities beneficial to the student body and the college. All campus organization's are chartered by the student government. The student government has the final power to determine whether an organization shall be chartered. Criteria have been set up in the by-laws to determine what constitutes an acceptable organization.

To regulate student activities is one of the more important functions of the student government. Social activities—dances, parties, and picnics—are regulated by a committee composed of seven students and seven faculty members with equal voting rights. Chaired by the Director of Personnel, the Social Welfare Committee has drawn up regulations of conduct and procedure for all social events. All major social events and off-campus social events are channelled through this committee. In the past year and a half, there has been a noticeable increase in the success of social events, and much of the credit

must go to this committee. Currently, the Social Welfare Committee, the Personnel Division, and the student government are working on a plan to bring all campus organizations into closer coordination. Such a plan will stimulate organizations to form more constructive and better coordinated programs of activity. Coming into a situation where organizations have been allowed to operate freely for these many years, the student government has been forced to move slowly in setting up the program by which the organizations can best operate. The ultimate objective of such a program will be to offer the student a better opportunity to express himself in social awareness and to develop himself into a leader and a responsible member of the community.

In the area of stimulating, encouraging, organizing, and regulating student activities, the student government has realized the importance of the student as an individual. Conceived because of the belief that student government is basic to "Democracy in Action," the student government has concerned itself quite extensively with developing the individual who controls a real democracy.

Much of the program of activity undertaken by the student government has been undertaken in cooperation with or under the auspices of the Personnel Division. Any program of activity affecting the student as an individual means cooperation with

the Personnel Division—only by complete cooperation can joint programs be successful. It is a policy of the student government to cooperate with the faculty-administration in all fields.

To repeat, only by a proper relationship between the student body and the faculty administration can a student government be successful. A student government must constantly bear this fact in mind. The student body must realize that in the elections for student government members they are selecting their representatives before the college faculty-administration and that it will be necessary for there to be a cooperation between the two units. The faculty-administration must realize that they are dealing with the representative body of the students and that it must not use the student government as a tool of pseudo-democracy. Only by complete faith in bargaining with one another can the two groups accomplish the greatest achievements for the college of which they are both a part. The faculty-administration must allow the student government complete administration within the authority which they have delegated to the student government—only in extremely rare cases should the faculty-administration interfere forcibly with the affairs of a student government. To follow this philosophy requires an understanding that there will be mistakes made. On the other hand, the student government must realize that it is operating on dele-

gated powers and that it has a responsibility to administer soundly all of its defined authority. The student government must realize that it is a dynamic organization and must constantly seek to improve itself—the student government at Indiana State recently recognized this factor when it attended a student government clinic sponsored by the Indiana Region of the National Student Association and Indiana University's Student Council<sup>1</sup> (The National Student Association is an organization based upon student government formed in September of 1947 by representatives from 361 colleges.).

If student government is based on a solid "why a student government", proper relationship with the faculty-administration and with the student body, a knowledge of the scope of its activities, a clear definition of authority, and an awareness of the need for fair representation in student government, it will not fail and there will be truly "Democracy in Action". "Democracy in Action" will benefit not only the college but it will bring faith that the democratic way of life can meet the tremendous challenge with which it is faced today.

<sup>1</sup> Information about the National Student Association can be obtained by writing to the national office, USNSA, 304 North Park St., Madison, Wisc.

Handbooks containing the constitution of I. S. T. C. Student Government can be obtained free.

## Abstracts of Unpublished Master's Theses - - -

Lowdermilk, Wilhelmina C., *A Survey of Factors Affecting the Prospective Supply of Elementary Teachers*. August, 1947. 74pp. (No. 574).

*Problem.* The purpose of this

study is to determine the influence of the salary and certification regulations of Indiana upon the number of graduates of the elementary curriculum from Indiana State Teachers College and from these factors

determine what influence they have on recruitment of teachers.

*Method.* The survey method was used in this study. The *Teacher Training and Licensing, Educational Bulletins*, and *State Legislative Bul-*

letins were sources of data. The graduates of the elementary curriculum of I. S. T. C. are those from 1923 to 1947 inclusive. These data were gathered from the record book, *Graduates By Classes*, in the Registrar's Office of I. S. T. C. To supplement the data gathered from the above sources, one hundred high school senior girls who are planning to prepare for teaching in high school were interviewed.

**Findings.** The conditions involving the supply of teachers place Indiana in the middle group as rated among states on these circumstances. The number of graduates have decreased since the four-year course has been required for elementary teachers, but increased training requirements cannot be the only factor entering into the situation and may not be as important as the effects of the depression and war. Although the salaries schedules have been raised four times since 1923, they have not increased the number of graduates except in 1933 and 1947. Both of these increases were very small. Increased salaries can be cited as only one factor affecting the increase in 1947. A major factor in the recruitment program is guidance and especially vocational guidance in our high schools with at least one trained and capable person heading the program.

Jones, Vyron Lloyd, *A Study of the Factual Knowledge of Current Events Possessed by One Thousand High School Seniors*. August, 1947.

**The problem.** Because of the swiftly changing pattern of world affairs, current events seem to deserve an important position in our educational program. With this in mind, the purposes of this study were (1) to gain some measurement of the amount of factual knowledge concerning current events possessed by high school seniors; (2) to determine the principal sources of their information; and (3) to find some clue, if pos-

sible, that might lead to a more effective use of current events in the school.

**The procedure.** The results of a current events test constructed for this particular study furnished the data. A section at the end of the test provided space for the student to check what he believed to be his first, second, and third most important sources of current-events information. Six specific sources were listed; others could be added by the student.

A total of twenty-six matching and multiple-choice items were chosen for the test. Although the test was kept short, it covered a wide range of affairs and had sections on Americans, foreign leaders, and Indiana men and events. No attempt was made to choose items of equal importance.

The test was given in nineteen high schools of West Central Indiana to 1,000 high school seniors. It was also given to three classes of Indiana State students for purposes of comparison. There were 110 students in the college group, and they were believed to be representative of the school.

**The results.** Test results indicated that both the high school and college students knew more about national affairs than about foreign affairs but knew least concerning Indiana men and events. Even the easiest item was missed by 9.1 per cent of the high school seniors; 83.9 per cent missed the most difficult item.

The range in individual scores was from one right in the high school group and five right in the college group to perfect scores of twenty-six right in each group. High school boys were better informed than were the girls, and the college men tested had a much higher average than the college women. The younger high school seniors had a slightly higher average than the older ones.

Average scores were figured for each school and group. The highest-ranking high school averaged 18.33

points right; the average of the lowest school was 10.13 points right. The mean score of the 100 high school seniors was 14.84. The average for the 110 college students was 18.24. The twenty-five college women's average was 0.34 of a point lower than that of the high school girls.

Of the nine highest-ranking schools, eight of them took at least one regular class period each week to discuss current events and provided a news periodical for the student's individual use. The other schools did not follow this practice and showed poorer results.

Headley, Thomas L. *The Adaptation of All Phases of a Play of the Legitimate Theatre for Non-professional Presentation*. August, 1947. 306 pp. (No. 573).

**Problem.** It was the purpose of this study (1) to work out an acting version of a play of the legitimate theatre, (2) to simplify all the various technical aspects of the play, and (3) actually to produce the play before an audience.

**Method.** In working out this problem, it was decided that an actual production of *The Barretts of Wimpole Street* by Rudolf Besier would have the most practical value. This play of the legitimate theatre had never been produced by amateurs and an acting version of the play was not available. An acting version of the play was made, the play was cast and rehearsed, the technical phases of the play were worked out, and the play was presented by the Sycamore Players.

**Findings.** It was felt that this production was of great value both to the audience and to the people behind the curtain. Interest ran high throughout the entire production. It was a play that was a challenge to all, from the cast right down through the technical crews.

The director is convinced that better plays are appreciated by people working in amateur theatre and by those who attend non-profes-

sional productions. It is the only way that many can come into contact with plays of the legitimate theatre.

An attendance of 1,293 proves that the play had audience appeal.

A total of 2,410 man-hours of hard work, which was voluntary on the part of the students, proves that they must have derived some personal benefit and pleasure from working with the show.

Near verbatim memorization of the lines of the play proved to the director that the cast appreciated a well-written play. They did not want to substitute their own wording of the lines for those of the author.

Borrowed library books on the Brownings were in evidence at rehearsals, and comments concerning the history of the Brownings showed that the cast members were doing research on their own.

The men who took part in the various phases of the play were genuinely interested in better drama. Most of them were returned veterans who had come into contact for the first time with legitimate theatre during their service. They felt that they would like to help with the show for the sheer enjoyment of it. Their interest in drama continued because they came back to help on the following shows of the season.

It is the belief of the writer that *The Barretts of Wimpole Street* was successfully adapted in all its phases to a near professional level by the amateur group.

Foreman, Guy F., *Organization of a Course of Study in Practical Harmony for Secondary School Use from the Unconventional Viewpoint of Band Arranging*. August, 1946.

**Problem.** This study was attempted to determine the major subject matter divisions of a course of study in practical harmony for secondary school use from the unconventional viewpoint of band arranging and,

after the major divisions have been determined, to organize them into a course of study which would combine harmony with band arranging and which would be integrated with pupil needs and interests. The march-form was used throughout the course of study as the medium of illustration and expression.

**Procedure.** The research method was used in this study. Both analysis of selected materials and the subjective opinions and estimates of experts in the fields of band arranging and composition were used in the research. Analysis of selected elementary or beginning books on harmony and instrumental arranging was used to determine a list of major subject matter divisions which might be used in the organization of a course of study in practical harmony-band arranging. The list of major topics were refined and enlarged later as a result of the advice and judgment of the three experts.

**Results.** An analysis of twenty-one books and one magazine article on harmony or instrumental arranging produced a total of eighty major subject matter divisions. A basic list of fifty major topics was organized by choosing only those topics which had appeared in half or more than half of the texts analyzed. The basic list was further refined and reduced as a result of submitting it to three experts in the fields of band arranging and composition for their opinions and judgments. They recommended a final list of thirty-eight major topics which might be used to organize the course of study. In addition, the experts also suggested a list of fourteen major topics which should, in their collective opinion, be used to insure the completeness and logical progression of the contents of the final course.

Finally, a course of study in practical harmony for secondary school use from the viewpoint of band arranging was organized using the final list of major topics together with the fourteen additional topics

and a great deal of original music materials in the contents.

Bell, Marvin Ronald, *A Statement of Suitable Objectives for an Industrial Arts Department in a Teachers College*. May, 1947.

I. **Statement of the problem.** It is the purpose of this study to formulate a comprehensive statement of objectives for an industrial arts department in a teacher training institution.

II. **Sources of data and method of procedure.** A tentative list of objectives for the Industrial Arts Department of Indiana State Teachers College was developed by members of the department. This list was revised by the writer, partially in content, and partly so that the various parts could be used in a questionnaire. This revised list was made into the form of a questionnaire so arranged that each statement could be checked separately, and revisions made if desired.

This questionnaire was sent to a total of two hundred two industrial educators in all parts of the United States.

In compiling the results of the study a score was made for each statement as follows:

1. The number who agreed with the statement with or without comment.
2. The number who revised the comment.
3. The number who were undecided about the statement.
4. The number who disagreed with the statement.

All comments and revisions were studied in formulating the final statement of the objective.

III. **Summary.** The questionnaire was sent to two hundred two industrial arts educators in forty-two states. There were one hundred twenty-seven replies from thirty-six states. This constituted 62.9 per cent of the number distributed.

The educators receiving the questionnaire were grouped into eight

classes: (1) heads of industrial arts departments in teachers colleges; (2) other outstanding industrial arts educators; (3) directors and supervisors of high school industrial arts; (4) principals and superintendents; (5) state directors of industrial arts; (6) educators in industry; (7) American Vocational Association officials; and (8) Office of Education officials, Washington, D. C.

On the whole there was rather extensive agreement with the list and the various statements in the list. Some revisions were made on the basis of criticism received. The original list as it appeared in the questionnaire may be found in Appendix A, and the revised list is given in Appendix C.

Burger, Clifford Robert, *An Investigation of Problems and Practices in the Teaching of Bookkeeping and Elementary Accounting*, August, 1947.

*Statement of the problem.* It was the purpose of this study to (1) ascertain the more frequent problems and practices in the teaching of bookkeeping and elementary accounting; (2) assign these problems and practices to appropriate major subdivisions of the over-all instructional effort in bookkeeping and elementary accounting; (3) determine which of the problems and practices were of greatest importance, both to the subdivision in which they appear and to investigation as a whole.

*Procedure of the investigation.* All data for the investigation were derived from three nationally circulated periodicals in the field of business education. These publications were the *Journal of Business Education*, the *Business Education World*, and the *Balance Sheet*. The articles obtained from these periodicals covered the ten-year period 1938 through 1946, and a total of one hundred sixty-five articles comprised the source material for the study.

The condensed procedure for obtaining and treating data was as follows:

(1) Reading of articles and taking of notes on their content.

(2) Classification of articles into seven major subdivisions, namely, Objectives, Course Organization and Content, Approaches, Teaching Technique, Examinations, Materials and Equipment, and Teachers and Teacher Training.

(3) Tabulation of problems and practices within each subdivision.

(4) Tabulation of problems and practices found by the investigation as a whole.

(5) Analysis and write-up of results of the investigation.

(6) Write-up of conclusions of the investigation.

(7) Preparation of a classified, annotated bibliography.

*Results of the investigation.* The more important results of the investigation were as follows:

(1) Twenty-four articles read on the subject of objectives showed that eleven of the authors (45.8 per cent) were in favor of objectives which allowed for both vocational and non-vocational aims.

(2) Out of the total of two hundred fifty problems, one hundred sixteen (46.4 per cent) were concerned with teaching technique.

(3) Devices for finding errors were the most important of specific devices in teaching technique.

(4) The outstanding problem among specific procedures of teaching technique was that used in teaching the process of closing the books.

(5) Objective-practical tests were the most commonly used type of examination, closely followed by objective-essay tests.

(6) Poorly-written textbooks were the chief difficulty found concerning materials and equipment.

Ahrens, Robert William, *A Study of the Predictors of First Year Achievement at Indiana State Teachers College*. September, 1947. 65 pp. (No. 575).

*Problem.* It was the purpose of this study to determine from the information available at the end of the freshman week the relative value of the predictors of first-year achievement at Indiana State Teachers College.

*Method.* The research method was followed in the study. The group chosen for the study was the freshman class that entered Indiana State in the Fall quarter, 1946. The records of the group of 1165 freshmen were analyzed with the following criteria in mind: high school rank, score on high school content examination, and score on the psychological examination of the American Council on Education. There were 600 cases to be treated statistically for the measurement of first-quarter success. For measurement of first-year success only 493 cases were treated, 107 having dropped out. Fourteen correlations were computed by the use of the Pearson Product-Moment Formula.

#### *Findings.*

1. The best single factor for prediction of college success is the high-school rank.

2. For practical purposes the best basis for prediction of college success at Indiana State is one determined by the combination of the high-school rank and the score on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination.

3. A prediction based on a combination of the factors known at the time of admission is better than one derived from a single criterion.

4. There is much greater accuracy if predictions are based on criteria available at the end of the first quarter.

5. There is a high degree of reliability between the scholarship index at the end of the first quarter and third quarter respectively.

Wooden, John Robert, *A Study of the Effect of the Abolition of the Center Jump on the Height of Outstanding College Basketball Players*. August, 1947. 48 pp. (No. 652).

*Problem.* It was the purpose of

this study to discover whether the elimination of the center jump in basketball was successful in bringing about a decrease in the average height of outstanding college basketball teams and individual players and to determine whether there were more or fewer outstanding individuals of unusual height since this particular rule change was enacted.

*Method.* Basic data pertaining to height, weight, age, varsity playing experience, and year in school of championship teams and all-star individuals for the years 1929 to 1946, inclusive, were collected by the questionnaire method and from other reliable sources.

When all of the necessary data were assembled, the statistics were divided into two classifications, those pertaining to individuals and teams for the nine years preceding the center-jump rule change and those pertaining to individuals and teams for the corresponding period during which the rule change has been in effect.

Height characteristics were then established for the championship teams of the two periods and for the outstanding individuals of the two periods. This was necessary in order to establish a sound basis for the comparison and to prepare adequate tables which would show clearly the difference of the groups and individuals representing each period.

*Findings.* When all data had been compiled and treated statistically, the results showed very definitely that the rule change abolishing the center jump in basketball had not succeeded in bringing about a decrease in the average height of outstanding college basketball teams and individual stars.

Twenty-four, or 14.7 per cent, of the 163 All-Star individuals selected after the rule change were 79 inches or more in height and exceeded by one inch or more the tallest of the 153 All-Star individuals selected before the rule change.

Eighty-two, or 50.3 per cent, of

the 163 All-Star individuals selected after the rule change were 75 inches or more in height, while only 30, or 19.6 per cent, of the 153 change were 75 inches or more in height.

Only 15, or 15.6 per cent, of the 95 individuals on championship teams before the rule change were 75 inches or more in height, while 42, or 49.4 per cent, of the 85 individuals on championship teams after the rule change were 75 inches or more in height.

Only 1, or 5.2 per cent, of the 19 championship teams before the rule change averaged 74 inches or more in height, while 10, or 58.8 per cent, of the 17 championship teams after the rule change averaged 74 inches or more in height.

Eight, or 47 per cent, of the 17 championship teams after the rule change equalled or exceeded the average height of the tallest of the 19 championship teams before the change.

Brockriede, Wayne E. *An Analysis of Verbatim Memorization in the Indiana State Teachers College Theatre Program.* August, 1947. 47 pp. (No. 570).

*Problem.* This research was the result of the curiosity of the writer to learn the extent of verbatim memorization and the nature of those departures from the verbatim, to discover the relationship between verbatim memorization and the rehearsal schedule, and to see the relationship of various factors which may influence the degree of perfection of verbatim performance in the Indiana State Teachers College theatre program.

*Method.* The procedure used to gather data in solution of these problems, briefly stated, was to listen to recordings of public presentations of fourteen full-length plays by the Sycamore Players, the dramatic organization of Indiana State Teachers College, and to compare the spoken lines as heard on the recordings with the written lines as found in the script included in the

production books for each of the recorded plays. Each of the fourteen recordings were completely heard at least twice. Each line was checked on a tabulation sheet as being the correct or incorrect verbatim delivery of the play.

*Findings.* The following is a list of the most significant conclusions of this study:

1. Nearly three of every four speeches, or 73.11 per cent, were delivered verbatim in the fourteen recorded productions.

2. The most prevalent type of non-verbatim representation of the script was that of substitution.

3. There was no significant relationship between verbatim memorization of a production and its number of rehearsals.

4. There was a significant but small positive relationship between verbatim memorization of a production and the number of days in rehearsal of that production.

5. There was no significant relationship between verbatim memorization of the actor and either his intelligence or educational achievement.

6. There was a very slight indication that experienced actors did not memorize as exactly as did less experienced actors.

7. There was a definite indication that characterizations of few speeches were more verbatim than larger characterizations.

8. The memorization percentage of the female sex was 3.34 per cent higher than that of the male sex.

9. The memorization percentage of the juvenile actors was 4.39 per cent higher than that of actors of college-age or older.

10. The attitude of the actor is very probably a significant influencing factor of the memorization percentage of that actor. The degree of this influence could not be measured.

11. Psychological forgetfulness is a probable reason for errors in regard to verbatim representation of the play. The degree of influence of this factor could not be measured.

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